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42

43 A manifesto for predictive conservation

44 Abstract:

45 If efforts to tackle biodiversity loss and its impact on human wellbeing are to be successful,
46 conservation must learn from other fields which use predictive methods to foresee shocks and pre-
47 empt their impacts in the face of uncertainty, such as military studies, public health and finance.
48 Despite a long history of using predictive models to understand the dynamics of ecological systems
49 and human disturbance, conservationists do not systematically apply predictive approaches when
50 designing and implementing behavioural interventions. This is an important omission because
51 human behaviour is the underlying cause of current widespread biodiversity loss. Here, we critically
52 assess how predictive approaches can transform the way conservation scientists and practitioners
53 plan for and implement social and behavioural change among people living with wildlife. Our
54 manifesto for predictive conservation recognises that social-ecological systems are dynamic,
55 uncertain and complex, and calls on conservationists to embrace the forward-thinking approach
56 which effective conservation requires.

57 Introduction

58 Conservation science has been defined as a crisis discipline (Soulé 1985, Kareiva & Marvier 2012)
59 because of the alarming rate of biodiversity loss and its impacts on ecosystem functions and people's
60 livelihoods (Cardinale et al. 2012). Yet, despite international recognition of the need for action (for
61 example, the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity Aichi targets and the Sustainable Development Goals
62 (Leadley et al. 2014)), and increasing global and national expenditure on research to find solutions
63 (Stroud et al. 2014), the overall trend of rapid biodiversity loss persists (WWF 2016). Conservation
64 needs a range of new, forward-looking approaches to solve current and future challenges.
65 Prediction, a powerful but currently undervalued tool, can form a vital component of such an
66 approach.

67

68 In the field of ecology, there have been a number of recent calls for predictive approaches to move
69 beyond developing theories to applications that improve management of natural systems (Mouquet
70 et al. 2015, Pennekamp et al. 2017). This is welcome. However, many of the challenges facing
71 conservation scientists and practitioners are inherently social, revolving around human behaviour
72 and its, often ignored, impact on natural systems. The threats that people generate and their
73 responses to conservation interventions are complex, dynamic and often context-specific. Hence,
74 focusing predictive approaches on improving the management of ecological systems will not be
75 sufficient to change the trajectory of biodiversity loss. Similarly, the prior experience and intuition of
76 practitioners are unlikely to be reliable guides to how certain interventions are likely to perform.
77 Predictive approaches can help understand how humans might behave in the future and ensure that
78 conservation interventions are framed, designed, implemented and evaluated to better account for
79 and respond to those changes. Predictive science can provide the evidence required to inform
80 decision-makers and practitioners, for whom an understanding of future changes in the systems they
81 manage is essential.

82

83 There are different ways to conceptualise prediction (e.g. Mouquet et al. (2015). Here we divide
84 approaches to prediction into three types (Table 1); mechanistic models of system dynamics based
85 on existing understanding, which can be used to explore how systems would respond to new

86 circumstances (such as models of human responses to climate change); empirical approaches that
87 make use of observational or experimental data, such as from stated-preference surveys (which ask
88 people about their potential behaviours under different circumstances or preferences for different
89 potential futures); and conceptual models of how a system may behave under different future
90 circumstances (such as used in scenario planning, or theories of change). We contrast these
91 predictive approaches to conservation with explanatory approaches, which might, for example,
92 statistically describe how the livelihoods of local people impact on wildlife habitat, or model (either
93 conceptually or mechanistically) the state of the system as it is. Although many of methods that can
94 be used to make predictions can also be used for explanatory analyses, the results of explanatory
95 analyses only allow conservationists to design their interventions based on current circumstances
96 and understandings. This is not to say that explanatory approaches do not provide useful
97 information, but rather that predictive approaches can be used to complement the information from
98 explanatory analyses, enabling interventions to be designed based on how the intervention may
99 change system behaviour in the future, in the context of external factors. Prediction is therefore a
100 powerful addition that allows conservation practitioners to either pre-empt change or develop
101 responses to it, rather than be caught blind when it occurs.

102

103 Our perception, as conservation scientists working at the interface between research and practice,
104 is that, while researchers may publish papers which use predictive approaches, conservation
105 practice is largely based on explanatory approaches, which are by their nature reactive rather than
106 proactive (Milner-Gulland & Shea 2017). This contrasts with fisheries science, for example, which is
107 heavily reliant on predictive mechanistic and statistical models to guide management (Haddon 2011).
108 This disconnect is particularly unfortunate because the foundations of quantitative conservation
109 biology lie in explicit predictive models. Lebreton (1978) formulated a stochastic population model to
110 assess the risks faced by wild swans in France, and used it to evaluate alternative management
111 options. Similarly, Shaffer (1981) used stochastic population models to develop the idea of minimum
112 population sizes and explore future scenarios for grizzly bears, evaluating the risks of extinction
113 within specified time frames. Since that time, there have been numerous applications of predictive
114 models in conservation, evaluating proposed harvesting scenarios, the impacts of planned

115 agricultural development and forest harvesting scenarios, and the consequences of anticipated
116 urban expansion (see journals such as *Natural Resource Modelling* for examples). In rare cases,
117 these models build in the interactions between human behaviour and ecological processes. For
118 example, Bunnefeld et al. (2013) used a management strategy evaluation framework, which
119 incorporated population dynamics and harvesting decisions, to evaluate alternative investment and
120 harvesting strategies for the management of mountain nyala. Nevertheless, despite the availability
121 of methods and examples, our observation is that many conservation decisions do not make explicit
122 use of predictive models of any kind. A particular gap lies in the lack of use of predictive approaches
123 to human behaviour (rather than models of biological dynamics; Milner-Gulland 2012).

124

125 Without predictive approaches, the practice of conservation assessment, planning and action is
126 stuck in the cycle of reactively implementing interventions after each new crisis has taken hold, never
127 proactively trying to avoid them (Putman et al. 2011). In this paper, we show how predictive
128 approaches can be systematically applied to all four stages of the cyclical process for creating good
129 environmental policy (Dovers 2005); problem framing, policy or intervention framing, implementation
130 and evaluation. By emphasising the learning potential of these approaches (e.g. by producing
131 expectations about what might happen and comparing these with actual outcomes), the
132 complementary power of a priori prediction and post hoc explanation is harnessed (Hofman et al.
133 2017). This integrated approach aligns with scientific best practice in other fields, such as military
134 science, public health and public financial policy, for which it is common practice to apply predictive
135 approaches to anticipate the emergence of crises. Our intention here is not to provide a
136 comprehensive review of the methods that can be used to make predictions but to highlight why they
137 are useful and the contexts in which they can be used.

138

139 The unrealised potential of predictive approaches

140 Outside of conservation, prediction is a rapidly developing science, responding to the need to deal
141 proactively with future and emerging challenges. Examples include the Stock-Watson's experimental
142 recession index, used to estimate the probability of economic recession (Stock & Watson 1993); the
143 Collier-Hoeffler econometric model, used to predict the probability of a civil war (Collier & Hoeffler

144 2002); and epidemiological models used in public health (Table 2). As in conservation, the success
145 of predictions in other fields varies. However, as the application of predictive methods is more
146 advanced, the associated impact is greater. This is particularly true in relation to behaviour change,
147 where theories from social psychology, such as the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 1985), can
148 be used to identify predictors of human behaviour (Armitage & Connor 2001; Hardeman et al. 2002).
149 As methods develop and sources of validated data grow, the potential for prediction in ecology and
150 conservation has never been greater (Sutherland & Freckleton 2011, Pennekamp et al. 2017, Maris
151 et al. 2018). Predictive approaches can be used to navigate trade-offs in decision-making and, when
152 coupled with further data, can provide real-time monitoring of the outcomes of an intervention.
153 Furthermore, predictive approaches can help to frame and design interventions, by providing
154 probabilistic assessments of likely outcomes, anticipating unexpected behaviours (Liu et al. 2001)
155 and understanding and explicitly accounting for uncertainty (Ascough et al. 2008). These tools can
156 also identify criteria for success and provide predictions against which to evaluate the success of
157 interventions (Mondal & Southworth 2010), thereby informing on-going improvements in the
158 implementation of interventions. This should lead to better design, and therefore to more successful
159 conservation interventions.

160

161 Prediction is also a fundamental part of 'active' adaptive management, in which the impact of
162 interventions is first predicted and then measured during implementation, enabling interventions to
163 be adapted before the cycle begins again (Salafsky et al. 2001). However, although adaptive
164 management has often been cited as necessary for conservation, in theory, it is still rarely used in
165 practice (Keith et al. 2011). Where it is applied, adaptive management is most commonly 'passive',
166 only reviewing past and current performance of conservation activities rather than actively applying
167 alternative approaches to improve learning (Grantham et al. 2010). Adopting predictive methods in
168 a staged way could therefore provide a stepping stone towards greater use of 'active' adaptive
169 management. Conservation challenges are not always predictable, and therefore may not appear at
170 first sight to be amenable to adaptive management. However, predictive approaches have also
171 played a role in real-time responses to unexpected events, by improving mechanistic understanding
172 of the system and exploring potential outcomes of different interventions (Ferguson et al. 2001,

173 Keeling et al. 2003). In public health, they have also been used as a communication tool to engage
174 local communities and decision-makers (Roeder et al 2013), and within a framework of adaptive
175 management, they have helped in evaluating disease control measures and informing updates
176 (Shea et al. 2014; Table 2).

177
178 Predictive approaches at multiple stages of conservation interventions

179 We consider the benefit of predictive approaches at four main stages of conservation interventions:
180 “problem framing” refers to the identification and definition of a conservation issue;
181 “policy/intervention framing” refers to the identification of the action or process that is carried out to
182 influence what happens; “implementation” refers to the execution of a conservation plan or decision;
183 and “impact evaluation” refers to the monitoring and assessment of intervention outcomes, leading
184 to the continuation, adaptation or termination of a specific conservation intervention (Fig. 1).
185 Elements of the predictive approach are already widely used in conservation, often in an informal
186 way by conservation managers on the ground; our contention is that formalising this approach would
187 both change the mindset of donors, implementers and researchers, and bring new and underused
188 tools and approaches (such as those laid out in Table 1) more into the mainstream of conservation
189 practice.

190
191 *Problem framing*

192 How a problem is identified and defined ultimately determines both its solution and the approach
193 taken in trying to implement that solution. Consequently, problem framing is a crucial step for
194 understanding the values and positions of multiple stakeholders, broadening the range of solutions
195 considered and finding the most effective ways to address certain issues (Johnson et al. 2013).
196 Application of predictive approaches at this stage could significantly improve conservation outcomes.
197 Failing to anticipate environmental problems creates a lag between the emergence of a problem and
198 provision of a conservation response (Sutherland & Woodroof 2009). This lack of foresight can result
199 in poor prioritisation of interventions (Dolman et al. 2012), naive assumptions about contexts or
200 trends (Siegel 1996), subjective and arbitrary decision-making (Game et al. 2013) and failure to
201 identify actual or emerging threats (Sutherland & Woodroof 2009, Putman et al. 2011).

202

203 Applying predictive approaches at the problem framing stage can lead to better informed and well
204 supported conservation decisions about which threatening processes to address, and in what order
205 (Game et al. 2013). This can generate better stakeholder buy-in and trust (Tompkins et al. 2008), as
206 well as greater awareness about other potential confounding factors and more resilient decision
207 processes (Murray-Rust et al. 2013). For example, horizon scanning has been used to identify
208 emerging issues for conservation as a whole (e.g. Sutherland et al. 2018), as well as for specific
209 issues, such as invasive species (e.g. Dehnen-Schmutz et al. 2018). These approaches have also
210 been used at finer scales, such as the use of scenarios and backcasting to engage diverse groups
211 of stakeholders in short-term regional environmental threat planning (Cook et al. 2014) and
212 incorporating risk assessments to quantify the probabilities of future bio-security risks in Australia
213 (Walshe & Burgman 2010). Promisingly, the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform for
214 Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) recently called for greater integration of policy with
215 predictive approaches (e.g. models and scenarios), developing pre-emptive policy responses to
216 forecasted future threats to biodiversity and ecosystems services (IPBES 2016).

217

218 *Intervention framing*

219 Conservation management often involves developing interventions in the context of complex social-
220 ecological systems (Nuno et al. 2014), when knowledge of these systems is incomplete and
221 outcomes are uncertain. Despite, or perhaps because of this, the design of interventions remains
222 largely based on personal experience or subjective judgements (Pullin et al. 2004, Sutherland et al.
223 2004, Ferraro & Pattanyak 2006), which can be subject to significant bias (Burgman et al. 2011). In
224 this context, predictive approaches represent an additional means of dealing with uncertainty and
225 complexity, exploring the consequences of management alternatives and identifying and evaluating
226 uncertainty in different proposed conservation interventions. This is not to suggest that the use of
227 prediction should supplant personal experience or judgement, but that predictive methods can
228 provide an additional source of evidence on which to design interventions. Not only can this lead to
229 improved outcomes for conservation but it can also provide greater security for policy makers and
230 donors when they are evaluating which options offer the greatest potential value for money.

231

232 Where conservation interventions aim to alter human behaviour, predictive approaches can be used
233 to navigate uncertainty and assess the likely impact of alternative management actions. For
234 example, the development of a theory of change for how different interventions can be used to
235 address illegal wildlife trade allows practitioners to identify which types of interventions are most
236 likely to be appropriate in a given context (Biggs et al. 2016). In another example, in the Western
237 Ghats of India, interventions involving the restitution of tree rights to local coffee growers, which were
238 proposed to promote the intercropping of native tree species with coffee plantations, were empirically
239 tested using a role-playing game modelling approach (Garcia 2013). The findings revealed that,
240 contrary to their original aim, the proposed interventions risked speeding up the transition to a
241 landscape dominated by the exotic silver oak *Grevillea robusta* rather than promoting native species.
242 This represents a good example of how predictive approaches enable conservation programmes to
243 be tested against unforeseen behaviour, allowing for better decision-making and design for
244 interventions.

245

246 *Implementation*

247 In many instances, the first stage of implementation of a conservation intervention or policy is a
248 small-scale pilot or demonstration project. Yet the power of such projects to establish that an
249 intervention will prove effective is typically limited by issues of scale and complexity in comparison
250 to the problem being addressed (Wells 1995). The temporal scales at which desired ecological and
251 social impacts are detectable can make evaluating outcomes, and therefore determining the likely
252 result of a scaled up programme, challenging (Kapos et al. 2008). However, it is often necessary to
253 start small and scale up later due to critical capacity constraints (Wells 1995), which can add to the
254 uncertainty regarding whether a piloted intervention will work at scale. Here again, predictive
255 methods can aid implementation by assessing the likely outcomes of multiple alternatives in advance
256 to ensure that only those interventions with the greatest probability of success are piloted (Travers
257 et al. 2011). This can either be achieved through the interpretation of existing evidence through a
258 predictive lens or the collection of new data aimed explicitly at testing potential interventions (e.g.
259 through the use of behavioural games or scenario interviews). Where an intervention is piloted based

260 on prior predictive work, and if the results of the pilot are in line with the predictions, this gives
261 confidence that the intervention will work.

262

263 Successful implementation of conservation interventions is also often dependent on a number of
264 exogenous factors beyond the control of practitioners, particularly in countries experiencing rapid
265 economic growth and undergoing significant social change (McShane et al. 2011). The uncertainty
266 created by such factors may affect decision-making and undermine any interventions attempted.
267 Although adaptive management can be used to redesign interventions to improve conservation
268 outcomes (Salafsky et al. 2001), such approaches largely react to the consequences of changing
269 conditions rather than the changes themselves, with the result that opportunities to respond pre-
270 emptively may be missed. Predictive approaches can be used to identify and test the impact of
271 exogenous factors on which the successful implementation of interventions may depend. For
272 example, Travers et al. (2016) applied a scenario-based interview approach to predict how forest
273 clearance by smallholder farmers living inside Cambodian protected areas would change in
274 response to an increased or decreased trend in the price of cassava (the primary cash crop). The
275 results of this approach showed that if cassava prices rose, illegal clearance would increase
276 significantly in accessible villages but would be unlikely to change in more remote villages where
277 farmers would be unable to capitalise on increasing prices. Hence, managers at the site are in a
278 position to adaptively allocate resources where they are most needed as and when cassava prices
279 change, rather than waiting to react to the resulting patterns of clearance.

280

281 *Evaluation*

282 The evaluation of the impacts of conservation programmes is an essential component of
283 conservation practice and is founded on assumed relationships between interventions and outcomes
284 (Maron et al. 2015). Those relationships are assumed in turn to operate through a theory of change,
285 which comprises the causal pathways between interventions and outcomes (Woodhouse et al.
286 2015). The theory of change is based on the best understanding of the system prior to an
287 intervention. However, before interventions take place, predictive approaches can be used to

288 develop a stronger theory of change whose validity can be tested during and after interventions by
289 doing impact evaluation.

290

291 In recent years, in the face of increasing calls for more robust evidence (Ferraro & Pattanyak 2006),
292 the evaluation of conservation programmes has increasingly used a counterfactual approach, in
293 which impact is defined as the difference between the outcome with intervention and the outcome in
294 the absence of the intervention under evaluation. The main challenge in the counterfactual approach
295 is that it is impossible to observe what would have occurred in absence of the intervention because
296 the intervention did actually occur. Therefore, the counterfactual must be predicted. In that sense,
297 approaches used to construct the counterfactual are predictive. A recent example of this is Young et
298 al. (2014), who explored the difference conservation has made to threatened species by constructing
299 a post-hoc counterfactual for the red list status of these species in the absence of conservation.
300 Depending on the rigor required, such an approach may offer advantages over other counterfactual
301 evaluation designs, such as randomised control trials or quasi-experimental methods, that estimate
302 the counterfactual by observing a control group, particularly in cases where the resources required
303 for data collection are high, it is difficult to identify a suitable control, or there are ethical concerns
304 around collecting control data.

305

306 Greater application of predictive approaches in constructing meaningful counterfactuals would move
307 impact evaluation from a retrospective discipline to a prospective one. This move is challenging
308 because in addition to predicting what would happen without the intervention (the counterfactual),
309 researchers have to predict what will happen in the presence of the intervention. However, steps
310 toward prospective impact evaluation have been made. For example, Visconti et al. (2015)
311 investigated the potential impacts of different strategies proposed to achieve one component
312 (endangered species representation) of the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity Aichi target 11 of
313 expanding terrestrial protected area coverage to 17% of the globe's land area by 2020. They
314 predicted the extent of suitable habitat available for terrestrial mammals, with or without (the
315 counterfactual) this expansion, under different socio-economic scenarios. The results vary as a
316 function of the proposed expansion strategy and socio-economic scenario.

317

318 Challenges in the application of predictive approaches

319 Much as with the adoption of more rigorous approaches to assessing the impact of conservation
320 interventions and the greater use of evidence-based decision-making in general, we recognise that
321 there are a number of challenges to the more widespread use of predictive methods. It is often noted
322 that there is a divide between conservation science and practice (Pullin et al. 2004; Sunderland et
323 al. 2009; Milner-Gulland et al. 2010; Gardner 2012) but we do not believe that arguing for *the use of*
324 *evidence* in conservation *is* contradictory to advocating for more use of predictive methods. The use
325 of predictive methods can also contribute to bridging the science-practitioner divide. The wider
326 application of predictive methods could prove fertile ground for furthering collaborations between
327 conservation scientists and practitioners. In general, external advice may be particularly relevant
328 during the selection of appropriate methods, which will vary depending on the level of capacity and
329 data requirements, the stage of the intervention, the type and precision of the prediction being made.
330 For example, while the technical expertise required to carry out some predictive methods is likely to
331 be found within a typical conservation programme (e.g. scenario interviews), other methods may be
332 better suited to collaborations between conservation practitioners and external experts.

333

334 In many cases, the data required to make predictions may not be readily available and will need to
335 be collected. Here the complexity of the predictions is likely to play a significant part in the level of
336 data collection and analysis required. For example, where the aim of an intervention is to reduce
337 forest clearance or illegal hunting, predicting how a given intervention is likely to lead to behavioural
338 change by its specific target audience may be sufficient. In this case, scenario interviews with the
339 relevant people, to inform a Theory of Change, might be a way forward. However, in cases where
340 the interaction between a conservation intervention and desired outcome is more indirect (e.g. a
341 specified increase in the population of the conservation target as a result of an alternative livelihoods
342 intervention), the data requirements of suitable predictive approaches are likely to be greater. In this
343 case a population model of the conservation target may need to be parameterised and behavioural
344 games may be the best way to understand how people respond to different incentive structures.

345

346 We also recognise that some decision-makers may be sceptical of the accuracy of predictions or
347 uncomfortable with the level of uncertainty associated with them. Despite the multiple benefits of
348 predictive approaches, applying them without fully understanding their inputs, outputs and underlying
349 assumptions can lead to misleading results. For example, how people say they intend to respond to
350 certain conditions may differ from how they actually behave (Webb & Sheeran 2006). A frequent
351 criticism is that small deviations in initial conditions can have large influences on the outputs of
352 mechanistic models, which are designed to inform policy (Crooks & Heppenstall 2012). As models
353 become larger and more complex, the challenges of testing and validating them increase (Crooks &
354 Heppenstall 2012). There are several cases where ill-informed models have led to suboptimal
355 conservation outcomes. For example, fisheries models that overestimated initial stock sizes
356 informed policies that resulted in overfishing and the collapse of Canadian stocks of Atlantic cod,
357 triggering an environmental disaster with significant social and economic impacts (Walters & Maguire
358 1996).

359

360 Acknowledging and communicating uncertainty when using predictive approaches to inform
361 management is a critical consideration (Milner-Gulland & Shea 2017). Predictive approaches should
362 be treated as informative tools that can provide new insight for policy as part of adaptive
363 management, rather than the source of definitive answers. A multidisciplinary team with inputs from
364 multiple stakeholders is likely to be key for enhancing success of predictive approaches, ensuring
365 that the social and ecological contexts are used to formulate predictions and interpret outcomes,
366 thereby improving their reliability (Subrahmanian & Kumar 2017). While communicating prediction
367 and its associated uncertainty to stakeholders can be challenging, this is increasingly common for
368 climate change science and ecological modelling at multiple policy levels. Gaining the trust of
369 decision-makers will be instrumental in integrating predictions into decisions-making frameworks. In
370 this sense, some predictive methods, such as agent-based models, are particularly suited as tools
371 for engaging with decision-makers, as they can demonstrate the potential consequences of different
372 policy or management decisions (An 2012). “Black swan” events, defined as events which are
373 extremely difficult to predict and have profound consequences (May et al. 2008), are another reason
374 why predictive approaches need to be combined with more traditional explanatory approaches to

375 conservation and effective monitoring. This provides a backstop so that management is able to
376 continue and to respond quickly when unexpected events occur.

377

378 The ethical implications of predicting social and human behaviour also require consideration. In
379 criminology, for example, the use of machine learning algorithms to observe crime patterns and aid
380 in crime prevention, has been underpinned by historical biases, and led to discriminatory policing of
381 African American communities in the US (Perry 2013). Similar concerns might arise in the use of
382 predictive methods to identify groups most likely to respond to particular interventions, which could
383 lead to discrimination (either in terms of additional policing or exclusion from benefits). These risks
384 are is likely to be true in any scenario, irrespective of the use of prediction, but risk being exacerbated
385 through the use of predictive methods. It will therefore be important for the conservation community
386 to ensure that decisions related to predicting the future actions of the individuals and communities
387 we work with are taken in a fair and transparent manner.

388

389 Manifesto

390 Despite many potential benefits throughout the policy cycle, predictive approaches remain
391 underused in conservation, representing missed opportunities with important consequences for both
392 biodiversity and livelihoods. In this manifesto for predictive conservation, we therefore call for greater
393 use of predictive approaches by both scientists and practitioners to aid decision-making and
394 conservation practice. This will allow for the implementation of pre-emptive and more effective
395 interventions. We recognise the existing use of predictive approaches in conservation ecology, and
396 therefore focus our emphasis particularly on situations where conservation science can inform
397 interventions aiming to change human behaviour. Movement towards a predictive, proactive and
398 preventative conservation will be of the utmost importance in addressing current and future
399 challenges, by revolutionising how these are tackled throughout all intervention stages and even
400 before they occur.

401

402 We therefore call on all conservation actors to move towards a more predictive approach to
403 conservation. This entails:

- 404 1. Using the best available tools to predict changing circumstances prior to their emergence
405 (Table 1), providing the space for more objective prioritisation and development of
406 responses.
- 407 2. Exploring the consequences of different management options in advance, in order to
408 reduce the associated uncertainty and support more informed decision-making.
- 409 3. Identifying the factors upon which the success of interventions depend, in order to facilitate
410 adaptive management as changes in these variables occur.
- 411 4. Developing counterfactuals in advance, against which the success of conservation
412 interventions can be evaluated.
- 413 5. Embracing and clearly articulating uncertainty when undertaking these predictive
414 approaches.

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614 Table 1. Examples of predictive approaches that could be more widely used in conservation
 615 science.

Approach	Example of use	Source
Mechanistic model	Management strategy evaluation in fisheries management	Dichmont & Fulton 2017
Mechanistic model	Protected area planning under scenarios of future climate change	Singh & Milner-Gulland 2011
Mechanistic model	Predicting changes to ecosystem structure and functioning due to habitat loss and/or fragmentation	Bartlett et al. 2016
Mechanistic model	Predicting how a common pool resource system will react to perturbations under different management strategies	Mancini et al. 2017
Empirical	Discrete Choice Experiment to understand elasticities on utility of different attributes of a system (including interventions)	Moro et al. 2013
Empirical	Scenario approaches for understanding how behaviour would change under different future circumstances	Cinner et al. 2009, Travers et al. 2016
Empirical	Behavioural games to understand future responses to alternative conservation interventions	Travers et al. 2011, Garcia et al. 2013
Conceptual model	Scenarios of different possible futures at the system level, horizon scans	Sutherland & Woodroof 2009, IPBES 2016
Conceptual model	Theory of change for how an intervention will go from input to impact	Biggs et al. 2016

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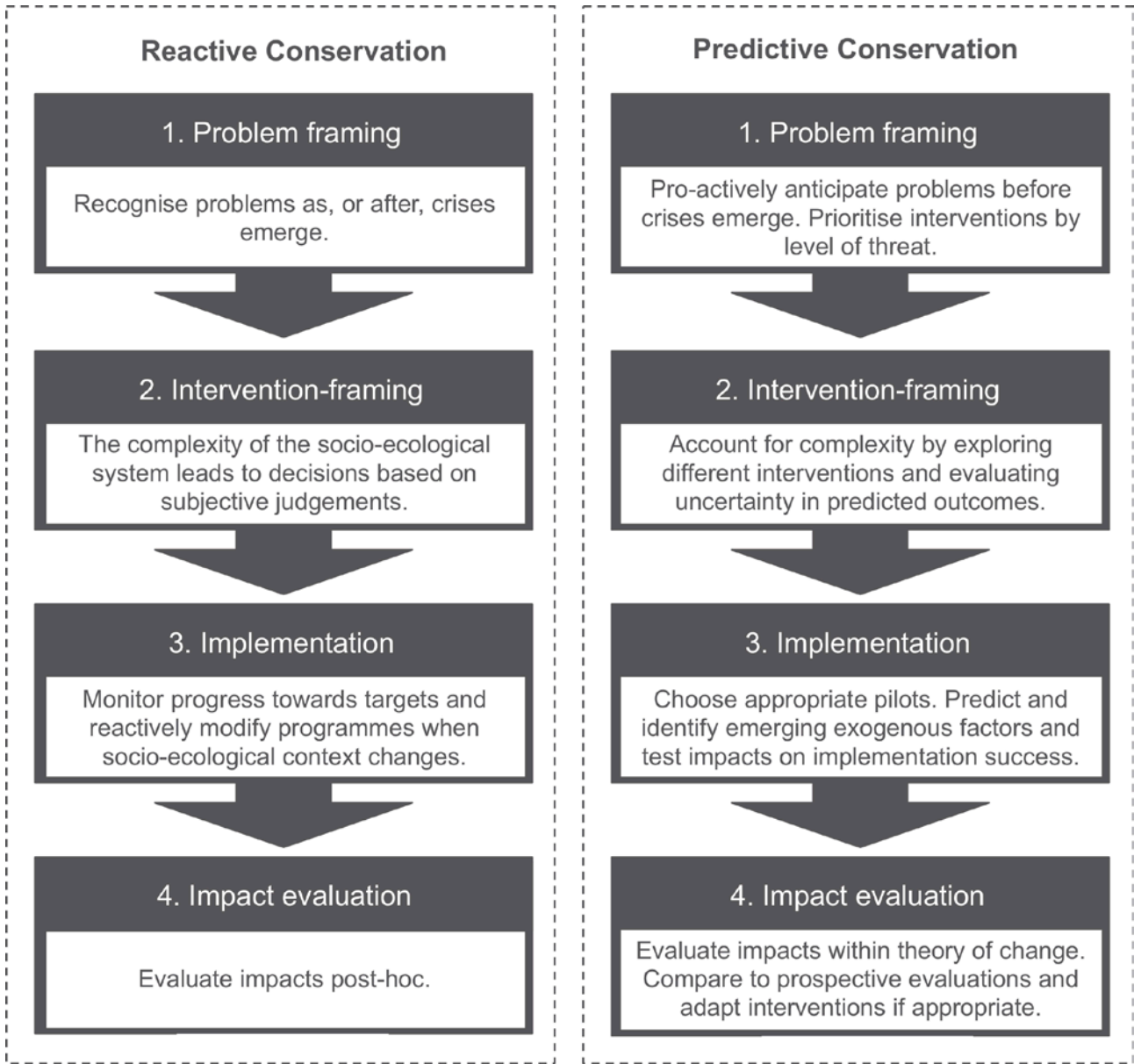
618 Table 2. Examples from public health of how predictive approaches have been used at all stages
 619 of the management cycle to inform and improve intervention design and outcomes.

Cycle stage	How predictive approach was used	Benefit of this approach	Study
Problem framing	By combining Bayesian phylogeography techniques and landscape resistance models, the authors were able to predict unexpected invasion routes of the vampire bat rabies virus. These predictions were then validated by real-time livestock rabies mortality data.	These predictions will allow affected countries to prepare for and mitigate possible future outbreaks by developing preventative vaccination of livestock, education campaigns and control measures.	Streicker et al. 2016
Intervention framing	During the foot-and-mouth disease outbreak among Great Britain's livestock in 2001, predictive modelling enabled the anticipation of the spatio-temporal pattern of disease spread.	Predictions from the models enabled the design of real-time culling and vaccination strategies.	Ferguson et al. 2001, Keeling et al. 2003
Implementation	In the eradication of rinderpest virus in the 2000s, stochastic epidemiological models were able to predict	These predictions played an important role in the implementation of the intervention by creating a	Mariner et al. 2005, Roeder et al. 2013

unexpected outcomes, by showing how suboptimal vaccination was worse than no vaccination. These models were then used as a communication tool to engage decision-makers in visualising epidemiological processes and choices.

consensus for a strategy of focused vaccination as a necessary action to achieve eradication, therefore contributing to the success of the eradication programme.

Evaluation	A study based on the 2001 outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease in the UK showed the advantages of using predictive tools within an adaptive management framework.	The approaches used in the UK FMD epidemic were estimated to have saved up to £20 million in terms of lower livestock losses to culling. The same study also calculated that a similar approach could have led to 10,000 averted cases in the measles outbreak observed in Malawi in 2010.	Shea et al. 2014
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623 Figure 1. A caricature comparison of predictive and reactive approaches to conservation; in reality
624 conservation practice will combine elements of both.